

the public realm

THE PUBLIC REALM

A Progress Report
The Federal Architecture Project
National Endowment for the Arts
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Architecture is an instrument
whose central function is to
intervene in man's favor.

....James Marston Fitch

INTRODUCTION

In 1962 an Ad Hoc Committee on Federal Office Space, appointed by President John F. Kennedy, issued a report that was primarily concerned with federal space in Washington, D.C. and with the redevelopment of Pennsylvania Avenue. One page of the report was entitled Guiding Principles for Federal Architecture. In the past decade they have appeared, often without reference to either their date or original source, in a range of documents from federal publications to a city council resolution in a mid-Western city.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR FEDERAL ARCHITECTURE

In the course of its consideration of the general subject of Federal office space, the committee has given some thought to the need for a set of principles which will guide the Government in the choice of design for Federal buildings. The committee takes it to be a matter of general understanding that the economy and suitability of Federal office space derive directly from the architectural design. The belief that good design is optional, or in some way separate from the question of the provision of office space itself, does not bear scrutiny, and in fact invites the least efficient use of public money.

The design of Federal office buildings, particularly those to be located in the nation's capital, must meet a two-fold requirement. First, it must provide efficient and economical facilities for the use of Government agencies. Second, it must provide visual testimony to the dignity, enterprise, vigor, and stability of the American Government.

It should be our object to meet the test of Pericles' evocation to the Athenians, which the President commended to the Massachusetts legislature in his address of January 9, 1961: "We do not imitate--for we are a model to others."



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With these objects in view, the committee recommends a three point architectural policy for the Federal Government.

1. The policy shall be to provide requisite and adequate facilities in an architectural style and form which is distinguished and which will reflect the dignity, enterprise, vigor, and stability of the American National Government. Major emphasis should be placed on the choice of designs that embody the finest contemporary American architectural thought. Specific attention should be paid to the possibilities of incorporating into such designs qualities which reflect the regional architectural traditions of that part of the Nation in which buildings are located. Where appropriate, fine art should be incorporated in the designs, with emphasis on the work of living American artists. Designs shall adhere to sound construction practice and utilize materials, methods and equipment of proven dependability. Buildings shall be economical to build, operate and maintain, and should be accessible to the handicapped.

2. The development of an official style must be avoided. Design must flow from the architectural profession to the Government, and not vice versa. The Government should be willing to pay some additional cost to avoid excessive uniformity in design of Federal buildings. Competitions for the design of Federal buildings may be held where appropriate. The advice of distinguished architects ought to, as a rule, be sought prior to the award of important design contracts.

3. The choice and development of the building site should be considered the first step of the design process. This choice should be made in cooperation with local agencies. Special attention should be paid to the general ensemble of streets and public places of which Federal buildings will form a part. Where possible, buildings should be located so as to permit a generous development of landscape.

In May 1972, a decade after the Guiding Principles were first published, President Richard Nixon issued a directive requesting the Federal Council on the Arts and Humanities to sponsor an annual Design Assembly for Federal administrators and artists; the Civil Service Commission to review procedures for employing

artists, architects and designers for Federal service; the National Endowment for the Arts to coordinate the efforts of the executive agencies to upgrade their graphics. The same message directed the Endowment "...to appoint a special ad hoc task force committee to review and expand the publication, Guiding Principles for Federal Architecture..."

For the past year an Endowment-sponsored federal architecture project has been guided in its inquiries by a task force of 15 members with special interest or training in architecture and related design fields. It has been assisted by a committee of agency designees representing 20 federal agencies with construction responsibilities. The agency committee served as a valuable resource of information and judgment; it was not asked to take responsibility for the task force's conclusions.

FEDERAL ARCHITECTURE AND THE FEDERAL INFLUENCE

By almost any measure the United States government is the nation's biggest client for the design of the physical environment.*

A property holder with world-wide possessions worth \$83 billion, the federal government has gone from the construction of less than a dozen buildings annually in the early years of the Republic to a current domestic inventory of over 400,000 buildings containing more than 2.5 billion square feet of floor space -- or the equivalent of 1,250 Empire State Buildings. It also owns other properties such as utility systems, roads, dams, bridges, and harbors and port facilities, valued at \$39.3 billion. It leases properties throughout the world at an annual rent of \$528 million. Its holdings include 760 million acres of land, representing a third of the land of continental U.S.

For millions of Americans the words, "federal building," still conjure up postcard images of the White House and U.S. Capitol or a memory of the telescoped Greek temple that was their hometown post office. Further reflection might extend to

*For major sources of data in this report, see Appendix 1.

some of the more generally visible federal buildings -- embassies, large federal office buildings, court-houses, veterans' hospitals, National Park visitor centers, prisons.

It is not so easy to grasp the fact that a wind tunnel for space research, an Indian school, a border station in Alaska, a Navy training center auditorium in Florida, a fish hatchery in the northwest, or a lighthouse on a deserted beach can just as accurately be termed a federal building. And the post office is now owned or leased by a public-private corporation and no longer conforms to remembered patterns. Facilities used by today's postal system are housed in structures ranging from gigantic, highly-automated plants for handling bulk mail to kiosks containing stamp-vending machines on city streets and in shopping centers.

Between the 6.5-million-square-foot Pentagon and an open-sided shelter in a national park are hundreds of types of structures whose construction is authorized directly by a federal agency. These projects require design services from professionals in architecture, engineering, and planning disciplines. In fiscal year 1970 the federal client awarded 3,400 architect and engineer contracts at a total cost of \$140 million.

(The Department of Defense awarded slightly over half of these contracts, the majority for \$25,000 or less.) In addition, the government in its own construction programs used the services of landscape architects, interior and industrial designers.

Beyond the Federal government's impact on single buildings on single parcels of land, some federal projects reach such gigantic proportions that they can generate the growth of whole new communities and skew the development of entire metropolitan areas. Oak Ridge, Tenn., stands as a classic example of the former, and in a few short years of the early space age the Redstone Arsenal fueled a boom in Huntsville, Ala., that sent that town's population from 15,000 to 120,000. Later, Florida's middle Atlantic coast went through a distressing boom and gloom cycle. The millions of dollars poured into the giant Kennedy Space Center in the Cocoa Beach area spawned new office buildings, banks, hotels, and topless go-go dives in surrounding towns. But less than two years before the final manned moon flight, 11,500 space workers had lost their jobs and many signs of prosperity had vanished.

Another strain on urban fabric is likely to be demonstrated soon in a fairly remote part of the Seattle metropolitan area where the Navy will start

the first phases of development of a huge base for maintenance of the new Trident missile-firing submarines. The complex of piers, drydocks, warehouses, and living quarters will alter the entire landscape surrounding Bremerton, Wash., across Puget Sound from Seattle.

Dissatisfaction with federal location policies mounted during the late 1960s. Decisions that dispersed large agencies to suburban locations beyond reasonable commuting range particularly distressed central city employees. In the face of this discontent the President issued Executive Order 11512 in 1970. It directed all Federal agencies to give proper recognition to social, economic and environmental factors in planning, acquiring, and managing prospective federal facilities.

Unfortunately, it is still common to hear citizens and local planning officials complain bitterly about the lack of federal concern for local planning and design objectives. Lack of coordination between federal and local planning is ultimately costly. A recent observation by a GSA official suggests that 75 percent of the problems GSA identifies during the entire course of building construction are traceable to the early or programming phase where the agency uses only a minute per cent of its personnel and money.

To gauge the design influence of the federal government on construction solely in terms of what it builds directly and leases is to vastly underestimate that influence. Though enormous, direct federal expenditures for construction remained nearly the same from 1955 to 1970. During the same period state and local totals nearly tripled. This was the result primarily of a steady expansion in federal grants to states and localities for construction. Included is the money allocated since 1956 to state governments on a 9-to-1 matching basis for interstate highways, a program that has had a profound -- sometimes disastrous -- effect on the environment.

In 1970 the federal government supplied nearly 35 per cent of all funds for public construction projects. Nearly 60 per cent of those funds went to states and localities in the form of loans, grants, loan guarantees and other transfer payments, more than twice the amount allocated in that manner in 1960.

The federal government cannot exercise the same close supervision over such federally-assisted construction that it does over projects it builds directly. However, there are requirements and procedures that influence design in almost all the programs that channel federal money to states, localities and other non-federal entities.

The Department of Health, Education and Welfare, for example, influences a wide range of decisions in the extensive construction it supports, which represents about two-thirds of the nation's health construction and a fourth of its educational building. The sponsors of such projects, mostly schools, colleges, and hospitals, select their own architects and engineers subject to review by HEW's Facilities Engineering and Construction Agency. That agency has published guidelines that specify minimum requirements for architectural and engineering services. Plans must meet minimum criteria established by the program under which the facility is being built. Criteria for assistance under the Hill-Burton hospital-construction program, for example, establish the minimum clearance that must be provided around hospital beds, a standard that helps determine room size.

From project to project and era to era the federal presence in public housing and subsidized low- and moderate-income housing has been alternately praised and damned. It has in the course of these ventures amassed a temporary inventory of property it does not want: title or mortgage to 250,000 housing units abandoned by their owners or repossessed through mortgage payment defaults. How these properties are disposed of and developed constitute

a significant urban design decision for the decaying areas of many of our older large cities.

Less apparent is the federal influence which follows mortgage insurance to home buyers, a type of federal assistance that both stimulates and stabilizes residential construction and exerts a strong influence on design. The Federal Housing Administration, which administers the program, requires that housing certified for such underwriting must meet its codes of minimum property standards. These standards, first issued in 1959, have covered such details of residential construction as room sizes, construction materials, lot layouts, street widths, and provision of open space. Though FHA insures only about 16 per cent of the nation's home mortgages, FHA standards are so widely accepted in the industry that virtually all housing is designed to them.

In a recent voluminous survey for the Department of Housing and Urban Development, the Report of the Task Force on Improving the Operation of Federally Insured or Financed Housing Programs noted: "Many of the best architects in the country will not design FHA-insured and subsidized multi-family projects either because they feel that the maximum FHA fees are too low or because of the difficulties involved in working through detailed governmental design reviews." To the extent that these problems

are caused by rigid standards, new minimum property standards which go into effect in July 1974, represent a major move away from prescription of material specifications to performance.

The use of loans and grants for special categories of construction mushroomed in the 1960s and may have peaked in the early 1970s. There are signs, however, that revenue-sharing may be taking up some of the slack in public construction resulting from the decline of some categorical programs and the freezing of funds for others. Architectural Record, in its September 1973 issue, noted that public construction contracts for the first six months of 1973 were one-third higher than for the same 1972 period. This expansion in expenditures, distributed over almost every type of public building classification, lends validity to a U.S. Conference of Mayors survey in June of 1973, showing that 72 per cent of all government units named capital investments as their top priority for use of revenue-sharing monies.

Public money at all levels of government is a pervasive funding for the design of the built environment. There are very few parts of any city that can be considered non-public works and most of these are affected or defined by one or many public works if by public works we mean all construction



out of government funds for public use. Streets, sidewalks, government buildings, public utilities, roads, airports, bridges, seawalls and piers, monuments, fountains, pipelines, powerlines, parks and plazas, and that ubiquitous underground determinant of growth, sewers are included. Public works are today so extensive and so removed from direct accountability to the electorate that there is little focus or inclination for questions: What is it for? Do we need it? Do we want it? Can it be designed to enhance the quality of public life?

The scope and volume of federal building and leasing, the vast reach of federal dollars that support a large proportion of state and local construction as well as private construction provide the background for our concern for federal architecture. This influence imposes a great responsibility on the federal government to demonstrate in its own building activities that our best values and judgments are reflected in public design.

PRINCIPLES AND QUALITY

This is a progress report on our search for a means of improving the quality of federal architecture.

Historically the quest for quality in federal architecture has for the most part been a quest for a distinctive architectural style. Even the building committee of the original Smithsonian Institution thought that their romantic Norman castle should be a prototype for future federal buildings.

The great federal buildings built very early in our history were essentially borrowings from past civilizations rather than reflections of our own. Such borrowing was the rule in architecture until the coming of the so-called modern movement well into this century.

Essentially, the modern movement meant drawing the aesthetics of a building out of its particular circumstances. "Form follows function" was the motto of its founders. This posed a special problem for federal clients. It was much easier to rely on traditional symbols such as domes, columns, and statuary to give buildings official character.

Now federal clients were asked to be participants in the creation of a new architecture of democracy, one that would adjure such symbols and seek to express something more profound.

Their initial reaction was to allow their architects to cast aside the symbols and design buildings that looked functional. One critic described the process as "architecture by subtraction," resulting in a bulky blandness that has characterized too much of federal architecture for more than three decades.

Lest this judgment be considered too harsh, we have found it to be overwhelmingly held by authorities on architecture, critics and practitioners alike.

The "academy" awards of architecture, bestowed by the American Institute of Architects for the past 25 years, are not the only index of opinion. But they represent, at least, an aggregate professional judgment. Of 165 national honor awards, eight have gone to federal buildings -- five of these built abroad either as embassies or under special authorities for international fairs. In 1970 the National Park Service was commended by the AIA with a special Citation of an Organization. Commensurate representation of the extensive federal office building program is conspicuously lacking -- only one among the honor awards and none among the 365 merit awards.

The 1962 guiding principles represented the beginnings of a positive new response to this situa-

tion. They warned against development of an official federal style, whether traditional or functional, and said that federal buildings should "embody the finest contemporary American architectural thought."

Since then several have. But they remain the exceptions, the rule being far short of greatness.

Finding the reasons requires a closer look at building purposes and the process by which federal buildings are conceived, designed and constructed.

It is a process that can go on for years on a sizable federal project, and one that involves a myriad of laws, regulations, requirements, criteria, and design reviews.

Many of these are inevitable, given the need for accountability in the expenditure of large amounts of public money. But they can be a crippling gauntlet for design particularly without the continuous presence of a decision-maker committed to the design goals of a project.

Recently there have been laudable efforts toward streamlining and simplifying federal building requirements, funding, and criteria. These efforts should be encouraged, but we have chosen not to make the regulatory maze our major concern.

One reason is that even a much larger project than ours, of much longer duration, could get lost in it. Further, procurement regulations were exhaustively studied by the Commission on Government Procurement, and its major recommendation in December 1972, for a governmentwide Office of Federal Procurement Policy is now before Congress. The power of this office could be impressive for rationalizing the present confusion of regulatory disparities from agency to agency.

The more fundamental reason for avoiding the regulatory maze, however, is that we believe that the quality of a federal building in the end depends much more on people than manuals.

For any manual -- or guiding principle, for that matter -- is subject to human interpretation and implementation.

PEOPLE AND QUALITY

Architecture cannot be mandated. It must emerge from a process of interaction between architect and client.

The quality of what emerges depends in large part on the skills and talents of the architect. But it also depends on the sophistication and aspirations of the client, and on the nature of the design process

Legislation may initiate the relationship between the architect and the government client and buildings may be the end product, but the key to the relationship is the people involved, their personalities, ideas, and view of their roles.

Although L'Enfant did plan the capital city, his relationship with Washington was to founder because he mistakenly thought that "the President has left me without any restriction soever." In fact, L'Enfant was directly responsible to three commissioners; his standing with them was not helped when he demolished one Commissioner's house because it was located on a square that L'Enfant had proposed.

Later Robert Mills did battle with Congress over the location of the Treasury Building. The architect petitioned Congress to be permitted to carry out L'Enfant's plan which left an unbroken vista between the Capitol and White House. Unsympathetic Congressmen carried the question to

President Andrew Jackson who is reported to have marched impatiently to the spot, thrust his cane into the earth and given the now historic command, "Build it here!"

Architects have designed buildings for the federal government for almost 200 years. But from the time of L'Enfant's dismissal by George Washington down to the present day, the relationship between the federal government and its architects has been a stormy one. Architects have had their plans changed, design fees not paid, and commissions terminated. At the same time, the federal government has been burned frequently by architects whose fertile imaginations have led to buildings whose costs have swollen to double or triple the estimated budgets. In response to these problems, both the architects and the federal government have attempted to develop a more judicious system for the creation of federal buildings. These reforms have come in response to specific grievances; change has been caused when the shoe pinches, not because of any recognition that the foot is growing.

The foot has definitely grown. And in the growth of the federal domain, a significant qualitative change took place by the turn of the century. No longer were designs produced by men such as Robert Mills who had lived with Jefferson at

Monticello for two years. Instead, architects working out of the Treasury Department, produced buildings that were scattered about the country. Although architecturally interesting, it is often impossible to discover who was responsible for a given design. Responsibility was shifting from the designer to a bureaucracy. Today this historic shift is confirmed by management rather than design leadership of construction agencies. While architects in the twentieth century have reasserted their independence, all too often their federal client has remained faceless, without humanistic design goals.

The selection of architects

The choice of an architect is the single most important choice that a client makes in the building process. Great architects can occasionally produce mediocre buildings, but mediocre architects almost never produce great buildings.

Greatness is hard to find in any case, but there are several distinctive factors about the ways in which federal agencies choose their architects that militate against the quest.

One is pervasive political influence.

Public agencies usually must make major purchases and award construction contracts on the basis of competitive bidding, but in selection of architects, engineers, and other professionals they are not so sound.

These choices, as recent headlines have illustrated, are fraught with special temptations to graft and favoritism.

It should be emphasized, however, that the headlines have mainly concerned state and local government. So far the federal building program has been relatively free of public scandal.

It is not, however, free of politics. The point requires no detailed documentation. The head of the General Services Administration, the government's prime civilian building client, recently described his job as "so politically sensitive, it's unbelievable."

Through our history public works has been an area in which political fidelity is rewarded. And it is a fact of political and professional life that Democratic architects are more likely to get contracts when Democrats are in power, and Republican architects conversely.

Fact of life or no, the effect is to push considerations of quality a step down on the list of criteria for architect selection.

Every time there is scandal it brings fresh calls for selection of architects and other professionals on the basis of competitive pricing to eliminate opportunities for either graft or political influence.

But such a system also would effectively eliminate any opportunity for choosing architects according to considerations of quality. The need is not to shift the emphasis in architect selection from politics to price, but onto quality.

Politics aside, there is another form of pressure at work on the federal client: the pressure to economize. He is constantly aware of the eyes of budgeteers and auditors over his shoulders, as he should be.

But in terms of architect selection this pressure often leads to the choice of a "safe" firm rather than a creative or venturesome one. Since this safety is usually defined in terms of the firm's size and/or previous federal experience, the effect is to narrow the choice and push quality down another notch among selection criteria.

To give quality a leg up, some federal client agencies have established professional advisory panels on architect selection. Such panels have been used to especially good effect by one of the federal agencies with the best recent architectural record, the State Department's foreign buildings office.

Advisory panels also have been established in the 10 regional offices of the General Services Administration, where their record to date is spottier.

For one thing, while the regional offices can recommend architects on their panels' advice the final selection is made in Washington.

Also, some of the panels seem to have fallen into a kind of system in their regions, under which federal design contracts are kept within a closed and friendly circle. In others, panel members have acknowledged serving mainly in hope of later getting some federal work themselves. GSA acknowledges that the choice of panelists can itself be politically determined.

Another device for injecting quality considerations into architect selection is the formal design competition, widely used in Europe but less so here, and rarely for a contemporary federal building.

In such a competition, architects actually submit conceptual designs for a projected building and a professional jury chooses among them. Some design competitions are invitational, and others are open to any architect who wants to make a submission.

Architectural opinion of its value is mixed and it has seemed to the profession in this country a laborious and costly procedure. Established architects often are opposed to competitions, preferring to be evaluated on the body of their work rather than on a single study-and-sketch exercise.

However, competitions can be especially useful in uncovering fresh architectural talent, and a survey of 18 (Appendix 1, page 13) held in America since 1960 showed that they had generated a considerable amount of public and professional enthusiasm. Interest is evident, too, in the large number of requests-for-programs in several of the open competitions. Professional advisers cite the high quality of submissions by "unknown" architects. Several of the competitions revealed imaginative approaches to some of the more troublesome problems of costs and time.

One significant side effect of competitions is to draw public attention (and sometimes controversy) to matters of architectural quality. The most important result of competitions may not be the immediate buildings but rather the opportunity to improve future design quality through heightened public interest and through giving access to the public design process for less well-known architects who have difficulties breaking through the barriers of seniority and specialization which tend to be furthered by exclusive use of even the most open and correct selection boards.

Information on both past and recent competitions is fragmented, inadequate, and frequently unrecorded.

But the obviously favorable reception and results of some recent design competitions in this country as well as abroad warrants further exploration and experimentation with this selection alternative.

The federal client

Some of the more banal postwar federal buildings bear the names of architects with solidly based reputations for quality work. For selection of the right architect, while a sine qua non of architectural quality, is not an absolute guarantee that it will be achieved.

On the other side of the table must be a client who is equally committed to quality, able to articulate the needs and purposes which the building is to serve, and willing to let the architect function fully as such.

Skill in programming and sophistication about the design process are most likely to be products of architectural training and experience.

There are many architects, and some very good ones, now in federal service. But they are scattered among the client agencies, and usually outnumbered by engineers and construction specialists. Few have major decision-making powers.

Their lot often is professional isolation and frustration, so that agencies have perennial difficulties recruiting and keeping architects of talent.

A myriad of federal agencies are engaged in building activities, making it difficult to generalize about the ways in which they meet or fall short of the definition of a good client.

Even so, interviews with architects of federal buildings elicit strikingly similar comments and complaints about their experiences with these various agencies.

Many concern the first crucial phase of the design process, programming. This is the diagnostic phase, in which the client's needs and the building's purposes are defined and stated in a program that becomes the basis for design.

Architects complain that federal agencies are inclined to skimp on this phase, often because of budgetary limitations. And if the program is inadequate it is almost inevitable that the building will be.

Also, architects say that federal clients often restrict the program to their own agencies' needs, to the exclusion of those of the public users of the building or the community of which it is part.

While federal clients may take a narrow and perfunctory approach to programming, they often designate what they want, and don't want, in the way of the details of design.

Most of the agencies regularly engaged in

building have thick handbooks filled with detailed design criteria, from favored exterior materials to specifications for paint and hardware.

When the time comes for design review, the architect is more likely to be rigorously questioned about these detailed criteria than about the larger aspects of his concept for the building.

And on every other page of the handbooks there are likely to be reminders that the client agency wants the most economical building it can bet. There are seldom convincing exhortations to innovation or imagination. Architects seldom have the incentive to challenge restrictions because of the six per cent statutory limit on fees. Further, private architects and engineers are more likely to lose money on federal contracts than on non-federal ones. (Appendix 1, page 11).

There are also, of course, recurrent complaints on the federal clients' side. Architects themselves are less interested in programming than in the aesthetics of design; they are profligate unless carefully watched; they look down upon bureaucrats and don't understand the constraints of public design like auditing and Congressional criticism.

Listening to the two sides is like listening to two different languages. In the absence of clear public building purposes and fixed accountability for design results, it is difficult to imagine them coming together in the kind of communication required if the design process is to consistently achieve an end product of quality.

PURPOSES AND QUALITY

Architecture is a permanent record of a civilization, of a people and its aspirations. This is particularly true of public architecture.

Each time we as a people build through our government we are telling the future something about ourselves, and also stating something about the relationship of government to citizens. Whenever public architecture enforces a citizen's sense of remoteness from the resources and decision-making of government, it is a loss for our ideal of responsive government.

Therefore, it is entirely proper that we ask that federal architecture reflect the greatness that we strive for, however imperfectly, as a nation -- a greatness based not so much on size and splendor as on humaneness, openness, and regard for individual dignity.

But the message that most federal architecture is giving the future about us is a distinctly distorted and unflattering one.

When we speak of the quality of a building as architecture, we are speaking in part of its aesthetic character -- its faces, and shape, and spaces. But we are also speaking of the way it fits its purpose, its users, and its context.

Requests for approval of federal office buildings now come before Congress before a site is selected and in absence of even a general plan or design. There are no discussions of the importance of relating the style and scale of federal structures to the surrounding community, or incorporating the activities of the occupants of government buildings into the life of the surrounding community. Federal functions tend to cluster in enclaves of insulated activity aloof from an interplay of community life and the daily work of federal employees.

The small amount of attention and money spent on the programming phase by federal builders and Congress does not allow an articulate statement of public interest other than the seemingly safe expenditures of money. While the requirements of the National Environmental Policy Act allow public officials and citizens alike to raise questions about public building projects, they are basically oriented to insuring that the environment will not be damaged.

Public buildings and spaces that are expressive of the many meanings of accessibility, that cast the government in the role of host are more suited to our time than buildings that are the symbols of administrative efficiency or the impressive presence of government power.

Part of the design success of U.S. embassies and the National Park visitor centers grows out of a fairly clear consensus that the public purpose of those facilities has priority.

The issue of quality in federal architecture, then, is not one of only improving the face of federal architecture but the larger one of quality development of federal space needs, taking into account the inseparable design concerns of exteriors, interiors, landscaping, art works, and urban design.

Mixed Uses

Congressmen passing the impregnable fortress of the \$126 million FBI building on Pennsylvania Avenue in the nation's capital can now see in concrete the loss to the Avenue's vitality so assiduously pursued by successive Pennsylvania Avenue Commissions. It does not take figures on balance sheets to suggest that early planning effort to support a mixture of lively pedestrian uses would have had important community development consequences. Not to mention a scaling down in both size and costs.

In many places the real cost in urban design terms of massive single-use office buildings is being questioned. Mixed-use buildings and developments are increasingly viewed by developers and city officials alike as a necessary part of protecting substantial investments in the city.

Other public sector agencies are addressing this issue:

New York City has dramatically retooled its zoning ordinances to mandate mixed-uses as a matter of public design purpose through the device of Special District Zoning.

Planning officials of the state of Wisconsin, with the governor's approval, are now considering the possibility of drafting legislation which will allow mixed uses in state office buildings. A state task force report emphasized, "A very basic criterion is that any projects built should not be impenetrable and forbidding -- either in appearance or in fact."

The State of Tennessee will begin the construction this year of an office building that will incorporate into its lower levels a complex for the performing arts and a state museum. The complex will contain on its first five floors a music hall, more than one theater, a television studio. The remaining 10 stories will house offices for state agencies.

As a general urban design policy, the Boston Redevelopment Authority requires office developers in urban renewal areas to utilize the pedestrian level for retail shopping purposes. The Director of the BRA observed, "Federal office buildings, in particular,

by virtue of their significance in the city, could act as excellent examples and catalysts to this policy and present a greater opportunity for innovation than the conventional private development."

In Canada the first multiple use government office building has just opened. Boutiques, shops, restaurants, cinemas, discotheques and exhibit areas have been provided on the ground floor. In a recent speech to the International City Managers' Association, Canadian Minister of Public Works J.E. Dube' told his audience:

"For some time now we have been concerned that so many government buildings die at 5 o'clock in the afternoon. We have given the problem some thought and came up with the solution that we should open the lower levels of our public office buildings to commercial use. We believe that (public) buildings should not just be austere, large chunks of concrete, steel, stone and glass but should be lively and vibrant and part of the life of the area in which they serve."

Mixed uses seems an idea whose time clearly has come but whose federal fate is distinctly uncertain.

Basically, the idea is that large federal buildings, especially in urban settings, should contain public-use facilities as well as the spaces required by their client agencies.

The point is to functionally link the buildings to the communities in which they reside, make them more welcoming, and keep them alive by night as well as day.

While these objectives seem to us to be eminently worthwhile, there has been very little use-mixing in federal buildings. The exceptions, such as the Pentagon's mini-city of shops and services, provide such facilities mainly for the buildings' own inhabitants.

There is a division of opinion within the General Services Administration about the legality of federal construction of mixed-use buildings or projects, especially those containing facilities that might be considered competitive to those in private buildings. But the government competes with private enterprise on a gigantic scale when such competition is justified as in the public interest. (By private accounting standards, the control of the timber market, the leasing of off-shore oil rights and other activities go so far as to make the Department of Interior, according to Fortune magazine, a profitable business on the scale of General Motors.)

And there is no little nervousness at the thought of the administrative complexities involved in leasing or operating the non-federally oriented facilities.

Nevertheless we have found pockets of interest in mixed uses in Congress, GSA and other federal agencies. We believe that the concept should be pursued, not just within a single agency, but as a common means of making federal buildings into more

fully functioning architectural citizens of their localities.

Adaptive Use

In legislation as early as 1906 and as recent as 1972, the federal government has affirmed its interest in preservation of historic buildings and sites.

It has authority in both legislation and recent executive orders to use a variety of means to protect historic buildings, including their outright purchase and restoration. There is never quite enough money to buy all of the buildings that need preserving, however.

The federal building program could contribute significantly to this effort if priority were given to purchase and rehabilitation of appropriate historic and architecturally interesting structures as a means of meeting federal space needs.

Precedent for such adaptive use of historic buildings is to be found across the street from the White House, on Lafayette Square.

The square is lined on two sides with handsome and historic row houses. In the late 1950s the government found itself in need of additional court and office space in the area. The first scheme was to tear down the houses and flank the square with new

buildings of monumental scale and character.

Through Presidential intercession this scheme was scrapped in favor of one in which the houses were remodeled into office space and new buildings placed behind them.

The use of historic structures should be an alternative to new construction. This is in line with a recent GSA report which states that "critical analysis should be made of the need for new federal buildings with respect to the existence of other buildings that may meet the requirement for additional space."

Landscaping and Interiors

These elements of federal building design share in all of the problems afflicting federal architecture and also have some of their own.

Landscape architecture's special affliction is neglect. Too often the federal client's interest seems to end at the building's edges.

Seldom are landscape architects engaged for site development, nor, are many to be found at influential levels in the federal government. GSA, in total, has three in its Washington headquarters and only one in a regional office, and none at a policy-making level.

Federal building interiors are beset by a kind of symbolism. Good design in their decoration and

furnishing has come to be regarded as evidence of extravagance.

Traditionally only high-level federal employees have been allowed to deviate from the drab norm. In large part this norm has been established by the Federal Supply Schedule.

The schedule is maintained by the Federal Supply Service. All furniture for approval on the government schedule passes through its Office of Standards and Quality Control, an office replete with outmoded requirements and politics but bereft of trained design personnel. Price, durability, and the manufacturer's connections seem the most significant determinants of whether a given product gets "on schedule." The Office of Energy Conservation quickly determined that the present energy crisis justified using government purchasing power to persuade private industry to design better energy-conserving products. Similarly, the Federal Supply Service should use government purchasing power to improve design quality.

Finally, there is typically no separate line item for furnishings or decoration in the budgets for federal buildings, so they must compete for general funds with such items as paper clips and lawnmowers. And if building costs run too high the interiors are

likely to suffer since they represent the last chance to economize.

The most widely publicized recent effort to improve federal building interiors is the Office Excellence program, under which GSA has introduced coordinated color schemes, new lines of furniture, and such innovations as office landscaping. But this program, too, is hamstrung by the constraints of the Federal Supply Schedule.

In most cases going off schedule requires tenacious determination by the top administrators of an agency and sympathetic response by purchasing agents.

Building Management

While this subject is outside of the design process it is related to architectural quality. For maintenance and management can either sustain or destroy the architectural intent of federal buildings.

In particular, it can do much to determine whether federal buildings are welcoming or forbidding to the public they serve.

GSA is the federal government's prime manager, being responsible for federally owned and leased civilian buildings. Increasingly GSA has sought to professionalize the management function, through extensive training programs and encouragement of contact between building designers and managers.

Management can mean far more than upkeep. It can be continuing adaptation of a building to changing functions and conditions; embellishment of interiors and encouragement of the building's inhabitants to "make it their own" through decoration of the spaces they occupy; the planning of activities that increase the building's public use.

Research and Development

It is almost impossible to say precisely how much of the annual \$17 billion federal expenditure for R&D relates to architecture. For one thing, relationships can be found in a wide range of R&D projects, in fields from mental health to energy systems, which do not carry an architectural label.

What can be safely said is that there is not enough architectural R&D, in or out of government, and more specifically not enough dealing with the ways that buildings relate to their users.

But there is some evidence of positive change. The Center for Building Technology in the Bureau of Standards is actively engaged in architecturally related R&D, and the Army Corps of Engineers' Construction Engineering Laboratory is investigating the relationship between architecture and habitability in military facilities.

Perhaps most promising is the emergence of "demonstration" or experimental buildings. GSA currently has two underway, an energy conservation building in New Hampshire and an environmental building in Michigan.

The present inventory of federal buildings also constitutes a vast research resource, one which has yet to be fully exploited. Evaluation of completed buildings presently is mainly a construction review. It needs to be extended to the ways in which the buildings serve, or fail to serve, their users' needs.

THE COST OF QUALITY

If there is a public consensus that a building must be fire-safe there is little quibble about the extra money it takes to make a building meet fire-safety requirements: energy conservation has now become a more important consideration than the dollar cost of conservation technology. No expert we could find could document that mixed-use buildings would "cost less." But less than what? The approach makes sense in urban design terms.

When public purposes are supported by powerful constituencies, costs will follow not lead as a consideration. One gets at costs by way of public policy purposes not the other way around.

Within established purposes cost is, of course, an appropriate factor. Once we have decided on a fountain we can debate whether it will be in expensive marble or less expensive concrete. In either case, the design can be imaginative or mundane.

Costs in the design of public buildings are usually related to the perception of costs. The result is a weighting toward banality. But banality is not necessarily cheap. Not only can bad buildings cost staggering amounts of money initially -- as witness the now notorious Rayburn building -- but cheaply designed, cheaply built buildings can in the long run be exorbitant in cost.

The growing acceptance of life-cycle costing, although a still very imperfect device, offers a new kind of cost accounting with the opportunity to put the costs of good design in perspective.

Architect Richard Stein has observed another consequence of initial-cost phobia: "The overuse of energy is made inevitable and is exaggerated by first-cost economics, overstated performance standards and fear of liability. These have combined to distort the planning process." As a rule of thumb, enthusiasts claim that a reduction in actual carrying costs can offset as much as ten times that amount in original costs.

Public expenditures will always be subject to public scrutiny, and they should be. Auditors are frequently criticized for the effects of auditing on imaginative design. But the proper function of an auditor is to audit. If a building deserves more costly design attention, development, materials that should be determined through a collaboration of agency programming and Congressional authorization. A consensus on legitimate costs derived from this collaboration can be noted in Congressional direction which can serve as the auditor's guide and a protection from criticism of so-called aesthetic costs.

Architects share, too, in a responsibility for addressing the issue of the cost of quality. It

doesn't help the building next in line when the architect brings in a project that goes wildly over estimated costs.

A more productive collaboration between federal client and private architect would certainly help. But underlying that encounter must be a better agreement, sustained by public approval, of the purposes of public design. Much of what we regard historically as beautiful public design was created either for simpler cultures where design flowed from an ethical consensus or for more complex societies in an autocratic political atmosphere. A pluralistic democratic society must find the vitality for design expression somewhere in the range from the banal to the excellent. Purposes can be subject to majority vote; good design cannot. More debate and ultimately a clearer definition of public building purposes to which the best designers can respond with their special talents is an important way of raising the design quality of the built environment.

A decade of rising social and environmental protest affirms the desire for improving the quality of human life. The question remains if we are willing to pay for that improvement. There are encouraging signs that citizen vision now extends beyond the protection of the environment to its enhancement, and to an understanding that, as architect Charles Moore wrote, "You have to pay for the public life."

RECOMMENDATIONS:
INTERVENTION FOR QUALITY

The 1962 Guiding Principles for Federal Architecture were drafted in the context of a particular concern for the location and design of federal buildings in the nation's capital, an atypical city dominated by the federal presence. They were addressed to aspiration and not to implementation.

They were important, however, not only for their assertion of a high level of federal architectural aspiration, but for their firm strictures against establishment of an official style.

Correspondingly, our own focus has been not on style but on expanding the Principles to include the present scope of federal architecture and a broadened view of architectural excellence more suited to our times.

Our premise is that the federal government has a special obligation to seek quality in its buildings.

It is the nation's single largest building client, each year spending some \$1 billion on the construction of new buildings alone. A building program of this size has great impact on our man-made environment.

A decade of environmental protest has caused a heartening increase in concern with protection of the environment, both man-made and natural.

One thing this has meant in terms of the federal building program is that a statement must be filed with the Council on Environmental Quality for each project describing its probable environmental impact in great detail.

And beyond this requirement, the President has issued executive orders directing federal agencies to consider a wide range of environmental and social factors in the planning of their building projects, including accessibility to transportation and availability of housing for employees at all income levels.

We believe that it is time for the federal government to take a further step -- to go beyond environmental protection to environmental improvement as a positive goal of its building program.

Each federal building dollar should be regarded as an investment in a better man-made environment for the nation. This means attention to the planning factors covered in the environmental impact statement and executive orders. But it also means a greater commitment to architectural quality, which includes the physical linkages of architecture to the surrounding community, and the details of design that affect the building's users.

Principles to be inserted here with additions--e.g.:

1. A principle that covers accessibility, lively use, continuity of culture, etc. which will make mixed-uses and adaptive use an appropriate response.
 2. A principle that extends the need for quality to interiors, industrial design, etc.
 3. A principle that calls for design accountability to the real client, the public.
-

But principles are not enough.

If the many decisions that go into providing federal space were tested by aspiring principles, some would pass, some would not, and most would be untestable. The buildings constructed and leased throughout the world in all sizes and shapes and for a vast range of purposes would also be difficult to judge. They are very good, mediocre, and terrible on a continuum of quality, and from a variety of viewpoints, in which only extremes are certain.

The uneven record of the past decade of federal architecture is evidence not of any flaw in the Guiding Principles but of the flaw in the expectation that principles insure practice.

We are therefore concerned with the means for translating these high standards into architectural reality. From our study we have concluded that the conditions essential for fostering design excellence in federal architecture are:

1. More open and politically-insulated architect and engineer selection.

2. Appointment of professionally-credentialed architects and related design professionals to top positions of all construction agencies.

3. Use of design competitions for a limited number of buildings of national significance and for small projects that can attract new talent.

4. Special treatment for buildings with high urban design impact.

5. More attention to building programming by agencies and Congress.

6. More extensive use of adaptive-use buildings.

7. Consideration of mixed-use facilities to insure that public buildings contribute to the street vitality of the adjacent community.

8. Inclusion of interiors, landscaping, and art works in building budgets and prospectuses.

9. Inclusion of urban design considerations in all impact statements and prospectuses.

10. Regular review of all procurement supply schedules by panels of leading private and public designers.

11. Expansion of post-construction evaluation of buildings to include design elements and their relation to community and user needs.

12. Provision of building-management manuals by architects.

13. Exploration of a consistent federal role in improving quality of work the federal government finances but does not build.

14. Inter-agency monitoring and review of design criteria, procedures and building results.

15. Establishment of a governmentwide design awards program to exemplify the goals of the Guiding Principles for Federal Architecture.

IMPLEMENTATION

The following list of recommendations is not intended to be complete. In some cases the proposals overlap and are redundant. But they are offered here for task force consideration as possible strategies for implementing the preceding fifteen points.

1. To insure greater insulation from the effects of political influence and administrative politics on the design of public building projects, we recommend legislation that gives a statutory basis for advisory selection boards of private design professionals. Panels should be chosen from lists provided to the construction agency by the National Endowment for the Arts. Panels then could be self-selecting.

Panel recommendations on A/E selection should be recorded in the Federal Register with the further requirement that when the agency's selection deviates from panel list, written justification should also be published in the Federal Register.

2. All contacts from outside any construction agency recommending architect/engineer commissions should be a matter of public record.

3. The Office of Management and Budget is currently emphasizing limits on new construction and greater use of leasing as ultimately more economical for the federal government. We recommend revising the present cost guidelines on rehabilitation of leased buildings to allow greater flexibility for adaptive use.

We also recommend consideration of arrangements that allow eventual government ownership of leased adaptive-use projects in a manner similar to the present purchase-contract authority.

4. We recommend establishment of a permanent small office in the National Endowment for the Arts with a prestigious advisory and educational role to provide continuing cohesion around the diverse design concerns related to quality in federal architecture.

The office should have impact statement review responsibilities under three CEQ/NEPA categories: Neighborhood Character and Continuity; Historic, Architectural, and Archeological Preservation; Redevelopment and Construction in Built-up Areas.

5. We recommend that a new office of federal architecture be created, through Executive Order, for the design, planning, budgeting and design review of urban design demonstration buildings. It would have the authority to countermand requirements or design criteria that stand in the way of achieving quality for demonstration projects.

6. We recommend that a special commission be established, including congressional and presidential appointees, to consider making GSA (excluding the National Archives) a public-private corporation with top positions related to design and construction filled by design professionals.

7. We recommend that the Fine Arts Commission be changed to a Federal Architecture Commission with broadened powers to conduct urban design review on all major federal building projects. To be effective this office would need substantial staff support of design professionals. Commission members should be changed frequently.

8. Many of our concerns could be addressed through an Executive Order that:

a. Emphasizes design concerns with monitoring of implementation done by the Council on Environmental Quality under the authority of the National Environmental Policy Act.

b. Directs a program of governmentwide design awards which exemplify the goals of the Guiding Principles for Federal Architecture.

c. Directs a limited program of design competitions for buildings of national significance and for small projects that can attract new talent.

SAMPLE EXECUTIVE ORDER

Guiding Principles for Federal Architecture

By virtue of the authority vested in me as President of the United States and in furtherance of the purposes and policies of the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 (83 Stat. 852, 42 USC 4321 et. seq.); the Public Buildings Act of 1959, as amended (73 Stat. 479, 40 USC 601 et. seq.); the 1962 Guiding Principles for Federal Architecture; and Executive Order 11512 "Planning, Acquisition and Management of Federal Space," it is ordered as follows:

1. In recognition of the impact of Federal building projects on the quality of the urban environment, and in furtherance of the mandate in the National Environmental Policy Act to enhance, as well as to protect, environmental quality, all Federal agencies with construction responsibilities shall take all practicable steps to promote and encourage street vitality and a lively pedestrian environment in and around Federal buildings. Federal agencies shall afford special design treatment to Federal buildings in urban areas and insure that a full range of urban design amenities shall be provided. Similar treatment shall be afforded large scale Federal complexes.
2. Federal agencies shall take steps to insure that Federal buildings are appropriately integrated into a community. Community officials shall be consulted in programming the Federal building and, to the extent practicable, their recommendations shall be incorporated in the Project Prospectus submitted to the Office of Management and Budget and to Congress for approval.
3. By the authority vested in me in Section 13(1)(xi) of the Public Buildings Act of 1959, I hereby deem it in the public interest to, where possible, plan, design, construct, operate, lease and alter public buildings so as to provide the widest possible range of uses along with Federal use, including, but not limited to, commercial, educational, institutional, civic, cultural, and recreational uses as well as joint use with other levels of government. Space

for these activities shall to the extent possible be furnished on a reimbursable basis; rentals shall be established at levels which will not provide undue competition for nearby lessors of similar facilities, where they exist. Community officials shall be consulted to insure compatibility with local planning objectives.

4. In satisfying the government's space needs, Federal agencies shall to the maximum extent practicable consider the adaptation of existing buildings for Federal use, particularly structures of architectural or historic significance. Where appropriate the Federal agencies may purchase such structures as an alternative to a new structure. This alternative shall include consideration of satisfying space needs by adapting a cluster of smaller buildings as well as adapting single, large buildings.

5. The Council on Environmental Quality is hereby charged with the responsibility to review and approve building prospectuses to insure compliance with this Order at the same time such prospectuses are provided to the Office of Management and Budget for other approvals. Special attention shall be given to insuring that Federal buildings enhance as well as protect the environment.

6. The Office of Management and Budget shall notify the National Endowment for the Arts immediately upon the approval of each building prospectus. Each year, NEA may select a limited number of prospectuses to be the object of a national design competition. NEA shall sponsor these competitions and, in consultation with eminent design professionals, shall determine the winning entry. Federal agencies are directed to cooperate with NEA and those responsible for the design chosen as a result of the competition.

7. The National Endowment for the Arts is directed to sponsor an annual design awards program to exemplify the objectives of the Guiding Principles for Federal Architecture.

A P P E N D I C E S

FEDERAL ARCHITECTURE--A SELECTED SAMPLE OF BUILDING TYPES

Air Craft Production Facilities	Disposal Centers
Air Force Bases	Domiciliaries
Air Monitoring Stations	Dry Cleaning Plants
Air Pollution Control Centers	Educational Facilities
Airports	Embassies
Air Towers	Employment Training Centers
Agricultural Research Centers	Energy Research Centers
Animal-Plant Health Inspection Stations	Entomology Research Stations
Animal Quarantine Facilities	Equipment Depots
Aquariums	Exhibition Halls
Arboretums	Extended Care Facilities
Army Posts	Factories
Art Galleries	Film Vaults
Atheletic Field Houses	Fire Centers
Atomic Energy Laboratories	Fish Hatcheries
Atomic Energy Test Sites	Fish Toxicology Laboratories
Auditoriums	Forest Experimental Stations
Banks	Fuel Bases
Barracks	Garages
Beach Houses	Gerontology Research Centers
Beach Stations	Grain Inspection Buildings
Biological Laboratories	Gymnasiums
Boarding Schools	Hangars
Boat Facilities	Harbors
Border Patrol Stations	Health Centers
Border Stations	Heating Plants
Bowling Alleys	Helipads
Bridges	Helium Plants
Bulk Mail Handling Facilities	Hospitals
Bullion Depositories	Hotels
Cabins	Housing
Cafeterias	Immigration Centers
Campgrounds	Indian Health Centers
Canals	Indian Schools
Cemeteries	Industrial Complexes
Chapels	Infirmaries
Coast Guard Stations	Inspection Stations
Comfort Stations	Internal Revenue Service Centers
Commissaries	Job Corps Centers
Communicable Disease Centers	Laundry Facilities
Communications Monitoring Stations	Law Enforcement Training Centers
Consulates	Libraries
Convention Facilities	Lighthouses
Correctional Institutes	Lookout Stations
Cotton Field Stations	Materials Yards
Court Buildings	Memorials
Custom Houses	Mental Health Research Centers
Dams	Military Housing
Dental Clinics	Mining Research Centers
Departmental Buildings	Mints
Detention Facilities	Missile Production Facilities
Dining Halls and Kitchens	Missile Sites

Monitoring Stations	Rock Quarry Sites
Monuments	Schools
Moorings	Seawalls
Motor Pools	Secret Service Training Facilities
Museums	Seismic Stations
Narcotics Rehabilitation Centers	Service Stations
Navy Bases	Soils Laboratories
Nuclear Power Stations	Social Security Payment Centers
Nuclear Reactor Testing Stations	Space Flight Centers
Nuclear Rocket Development Stations	Space Tracking Stations
Nurseries	Special Purpose Laboratories
Observatories	Steam Gaging Stations
Office Buildings	Storage Facilities
Outpatient Clinics	Sugar Plant Stations
Parkways	Swimming Pools
Performing Arts Centers	Theaters
Pistol and Rifle Ranges	Trading Posts
Plant Materials Centers	Tree Nurseries
Police Stations	Truck Weighing Stations
Post Offices	Veterans Administration Centers
Power Plants	Visitor Centers
Prisons	Vocational Education Facilities
Radar Sites	Warehouses
Radiation Health Laboratories	Waste Treatment Facilities
Radio Stations	Water Level Gage Stations
Railways and Yards	Water Quality Laboratories
Record Centers	Weather Stations
Recreation Areas	Well Inspection Facilities
Reformatories	Wind Tunnels
River Locks	Youth Centers
Roads	Zoological Park Facilities
Rocket Launching Towers	

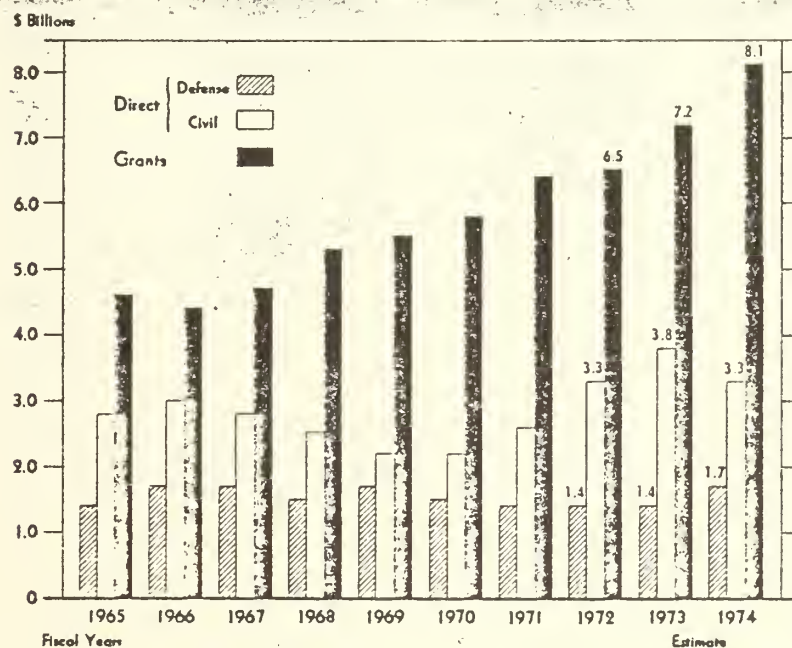
SOURCES: The Budget of the U.S. Government--1974, Appendix

Real Property Owned by the United States (as of June 30, 1972),
compiled by GSA

Table O-2. FEDERAL OUTLAYS FOR PUBLIC WORKS, 1965-74
(In millions of dollars)

Fiscal year	Total Federal outlays	Direct Federal construction			Grants	Net loans
		Total	Civil	Defense		
1965.....	8,886	4,152	2,800	1,352	4,567	167
1966.....	9,428	4,693	3,014	1,679	4,446	289
1967.....	9,572	4,483	2,752	1,731	4,730	359
1968.....	9,520	3,972	2,460	1,513	5,264	284
1969.....	9,683	3,932	2,186	1,746	5,479	272
1970.....	9,791	3,740	2,200	1,540	5,796	255
1971.....	10,632	4,001	2,617	1,384	6,429	202
* 1972.....	11,468	4,713	3,294	1,419	6,548	206
* 1973 estimate.....	12,702	5,203	3,760	1,443	7,219	280
* 1974 estimate.....	13,365	5,015	3,292	1,723	8,064	286

Federal Outlays for Public Works



*Does not include post offices.

SOURCE: Special Analyses - Budget of the United States Government, Fiscal Year 1974; page 228

SUMMARY OF FEDERAL REAL PROPERTY THROUGHOUT THE WORLD

Description	Number of installations	Land (acres in millions)	Buildings (square feet in millions)	Total cost (in billions)	Percent of total cost
United States:					
Civil agencies.....	15,417	730.2	656.1	20.6	35.8
Defense (military functions).....	4,067	23.0	1,516.9	34.5	41.7
Defense (civil functions).....	1,150	7.5	10.6	11.3	13.7
Total, United States.....	20,643	760.7	2,483.6	75.4	91.2
Outlying areas of the U.S.:					
Civil agencies.....	198	.4	6.8	0.9	1.1
Defense (military functions).....	(1)	.1	(1)	1.6	1.9
Defense (civil functions).....	1	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Total, outlying areas of the U.S.....	xxx	.5	xxx	2.5	3.0
Foreign countries:					
Civil agencies.....	328	(2)	19.7	.4	.6
Defense (military functions).....	(1)	(2)	(1)	4.4	5.2
Total, foreign countries.....	xxx	(2)	xxx	4.8	5.8
Worldwide:					
Civil agencies.....	15,943	730.6	692.6	30.9	37.4
Defense (military functions).....	(1)	23.1	(1)	40.5	48.9
Defense (civil functions).....	1,160	7.5	10.7	11.3	13.7
Total, worldwide.....	xxx	761.2	xxx	82.7	100.0

¹ These data are not furnished by Department of Defense.

² Negligible.

Department of Defense furnished only summary data on total acres and total costs for its military functions located outside the United States. Therefore, the above table and other tables and charts in this report do not show detailed information (e.g., number of installations,

SOURCE: Inventory Report on Real Property Owned by the United States Throughout the World As of June 30, 1972, Prepared by GSA

FLOOR AREA AND COST OF 403,323 FEDERALLY OWNED BUILDINGS IN THE UNITED STATES BY PREDOMINANT USAGE CATEGORY AS OF JUNE 30, 1972

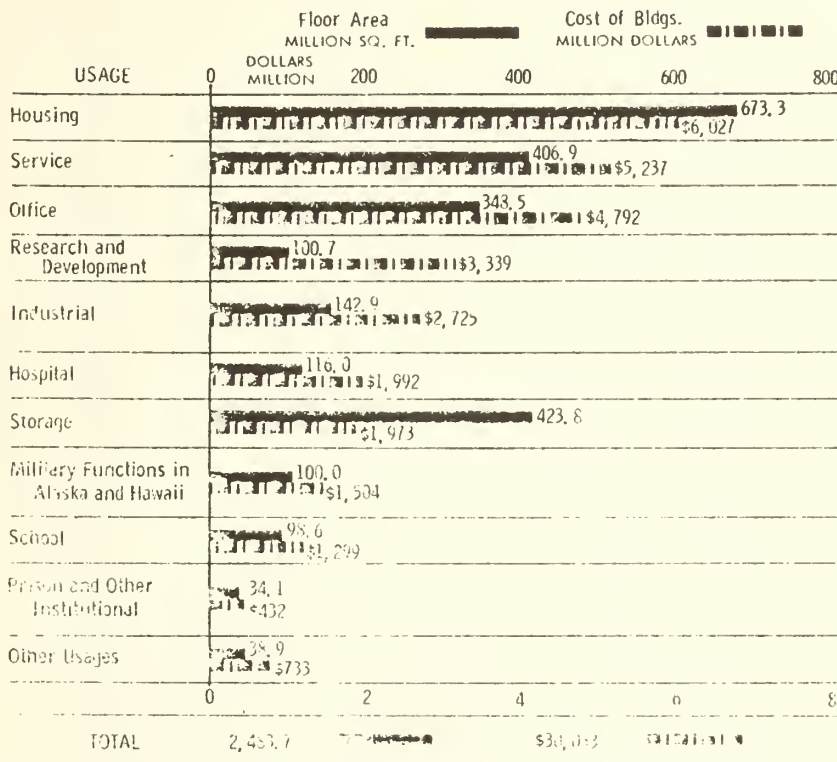


Chart 7

The following table summarizes building data by selected civil agencies for properties outside the United States:

Agency	Number of buildings	Floor area (square feet in thousands)	Cost (in millions of dollars)
State.....	1,983	17,896	223
Panama Canal Company.....	2,771	10,558	84
Canal Zone Government.....	272	2,781	43
Transportation.....	816	1,659	36
Other agencies (15).....	1,271	4,040	94
Total.....	7,083	36,544	481

SOURCE: Inventory Report on Real Property Owned by the United States Throughout the World As of June 30, 1972, Prepared by GSA

COMPARISON OF ANNUAL RENTAL OF REAL PROPERTY LEASED TO THE UNITED STATES THROUGHOUT THE WORLD - BY AGENCY AS OF JUNE 30, 1972

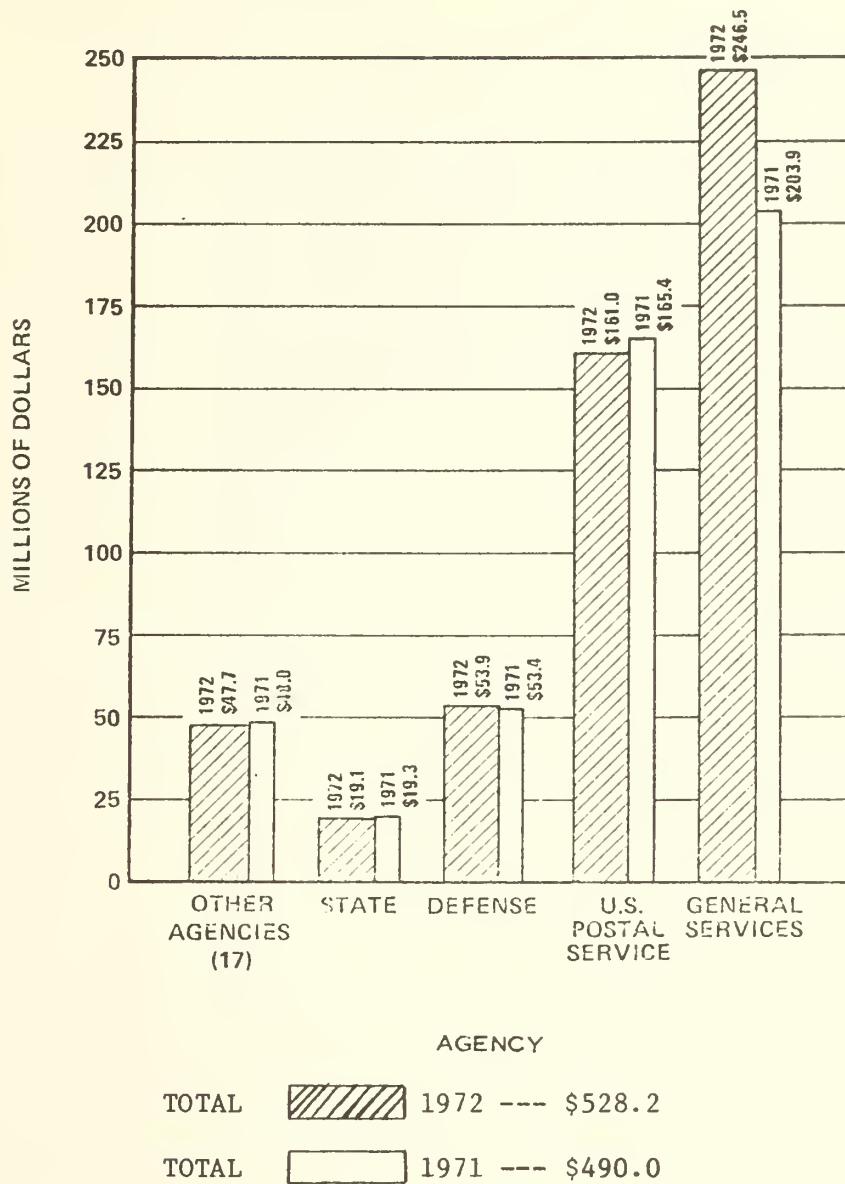


CHART 2

SOURCE: Inventory Report on Real Property Leased to the United States Throughout the World As of June 30, 1972, Prepared by GSA

**COST OF FEDERAL STRUCTURES AND FACILITIES IN THE
UNITED STATES AS OF JUNE 30, 1972**

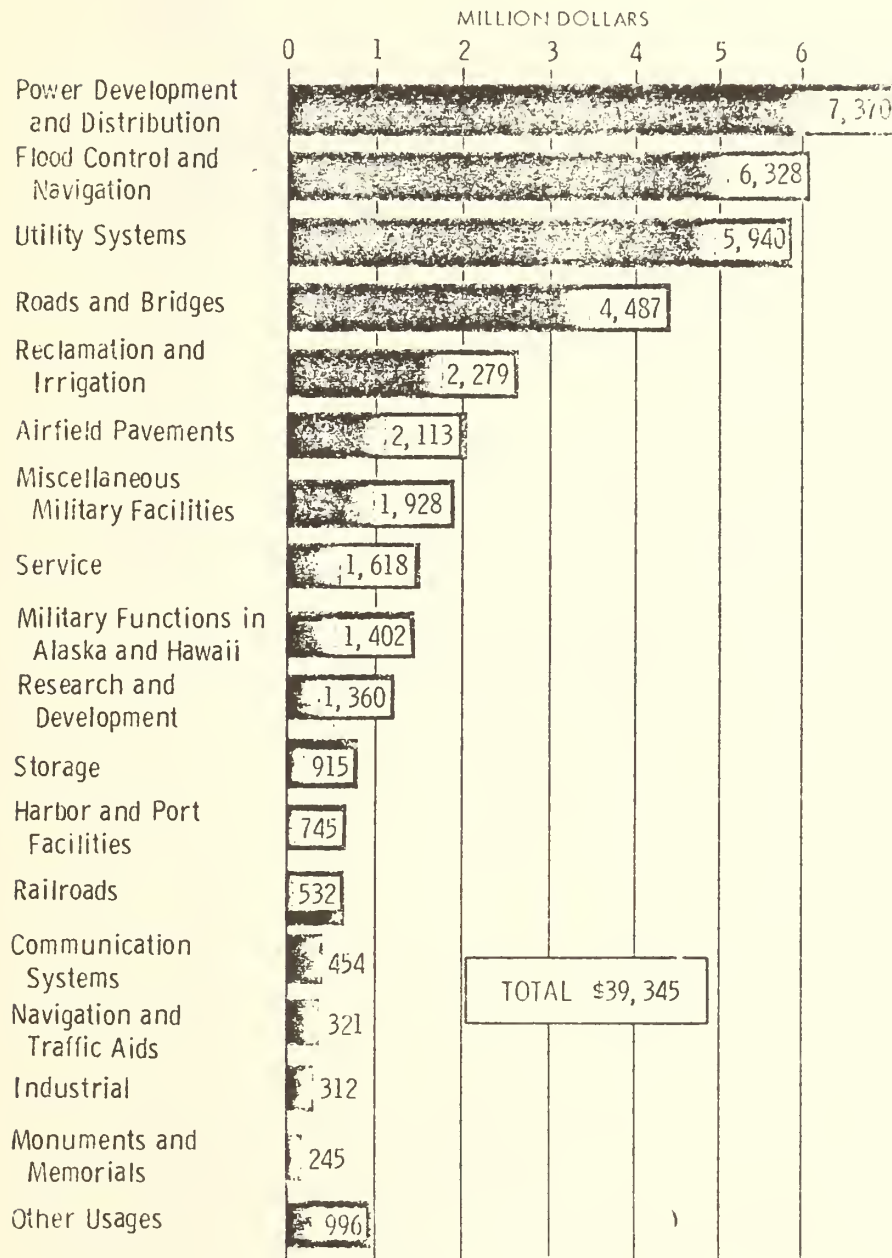
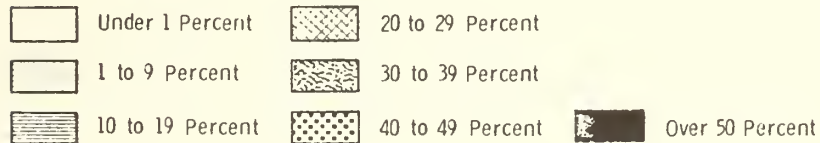
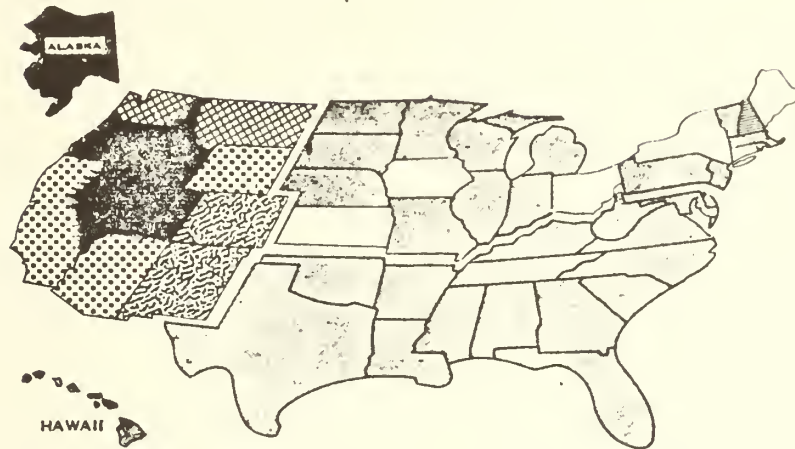


Chart 8

SOURCE: Inventory Report on Real Property Owned by the United States Throughout the World As of June 30, 1972, Prepared by GSA

PERCENT OF LAND OWNED BY THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT
IN THE UNITED STATES AS OF JUNE 30, 1972



TOTAL U. S. 2, 271. 3 Million Acres (100 percent)

FEDERALLY OWNED 760. 7 Million Acres (33. 5 percent)

SEE TABLE 4 IN APPENDIX I FOR DETAILS BY STATE

STATES	ACRES (IN MILLIONS)		PERCENT FEDERALLY OWNED
	FEDERALLY OWNED	TOTAL IN STATES	
Alaska	353. 6	365. 5	96. 7
Western	358. 7	752. 9	47. 6
S. Atlantic, S. Central, D. C.	26. 8	561. 2	4. 8
Northeastern, N. Central	21. 2	587. 6	3. 6
Hawaii	0. 4	4. 1	9. 8
TOTAL	760. 7	2, 271. 3	33. 5

The following table shows the agencies reporting the major portions of acreage outside the United States:

Agency	Acres (in thousands)	Percent of total acres
Panama Canal Company.....	357	63. 9
Defense.....	125	22. 4
Interior.....	28	5. 0
Agriculture.....	28	5. 0
Other agencies (16).....	21	3. 7
Total.....	559	110. 0

SOURCE: Inventory Report on Real Property Owned by the United States Throughout the World As of June 30, 1972, Prepared by GSA

TABLE 1. DIRECT CONSTRUCTION

<i>Agency</i>	<i>Estimated fiscal 1972 outlays (\$ millions)¹</i>	<i>Percentage of total direct construction²</i>
Department of Defense: civil works Corps of Engineers—flood control, navigation, and multiple purpose projects with power	\$1,119	20.62
Tennessee Valley Authority: power, water resources, and chemical fa- cilities ³	654	12.05
Army: military	564	10.39
Navy: military	462	8.51
Air Force: military ⁴	304	5.60
Department of the Interior: Bureau of Reclamation	292	5.38
Postal Service: post office improvements and alterations ⁵	276	5.09
Department of Transportation: Federal Aviation Administration	246	4.53
Atomic Energy Commission: facilities	237	4.37
General Services Administration	199	3.67
Department of Agriculture: Forest Service: roads, research, recreational, and protective facilities	195	3.59
Department of Defense: family housing	177	3.26
Veterans Administration: medical care facilities	107	1.97
Department of the Interior:		
Bonneville Power Administration	90	1.66
Bureau of Indian Affairs	86	1.58
National Park Service	81	1.49
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare: Health		
Services and Mental Health Administration	43	.79
Department of Transportation: Coast Guard	43	.79
National Aeronautics and Space Administration	43	.79
Department of Defense: interservice activities—construction, defense agencies	16	.30
Miscellaneous	194	3.57
Total civilian and defense public works direct construction	<u>\$5,428</u>	<u>100.00</u>

¹ *Special Analyses of the United States Government, Fiscal Year 1973*, Executive Office of the President, Office of Management and Budget, pp. 260, 277, and 278.

² Calculated by the Commission.

³ TVA does most of its construction with its own personnel.

⁴ Construction performed by the Corps of Engineers and Naval Facilities Engineering Command.

⁵ Construction performed by Corps of Engineers.

SOURCE: Report of the Commission on Government Procurement, Volume 3,
Part E - Chapter 1; page 109

Value of Federally Owned Construction Put In Place During Calendar Year
(millions of dollars)¹:

(Staff Note: Since the total dollar volume does not correspond precisely with the figures in the 1974 Special Analyses of the Budget, we offer the following breakdown for illustrative purposes only)

	<u>1965</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1971</u>	<u>1972</u>
TOTAL	4,014	3,290	3,983	4,404
Buildings	1,460	902	1,077	1,130
housing	148	93	124	143
industrial	368	499	572	534
educational	14	15	19	26
hospitals	121	129	150	158
other ²	809	166	212	269
Non buildings	2,554	2,388	3,906	3,274
highways and streets	169	253	288	318
military facilities ³	830	718	901	1,080
conservation and development	1,506	1,367	1,645	1,762
misc construction	49	50	72	114

¹dollar volume represents the value of work done on a project for the year only; i.e., it does not represent completed projects or initiated projects, simply the amount of work done each year; agencies provide monthly reports.

²principally GSA projects

³doesn't include family housing, industrial facilities, hospitals, but does include troop housing, gymnasiums, px's, and all other military buildings.

SOURCE: Office of Construction Statistics, Bureau of the Census



STUDY GROUP 13-B A/E SERVICES
TABULATED FROM FEDERAL AGENCY QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSES
DIRECT PROCUREMENT OF ARCHITECT-ENGINEER SERVICES

		(Federal Agency)		(Date)		
(1) Major Agency Subdivision	(2) July 1, '67-June 30, '68	(3) July 1, '68-June 30, '69	(4) July 1, '69-June 30, '70			
	(2a) Number of Contracts	(2b) Funds Obligated	(3a) Number of Contracts	(3b) Funds Obligated	(4a) Number of Contracts	(4b) Funds Obligated
Agriculture Department						
Soils Cons. Ser.	31	747,400	12	201,500	18	422,600
Forest Service	263	4,036,000	228	3,555,000	338	5,454,000
Atomic Energy Comm.	987	38,500,000	932	36,300,000	805	24,900,000
Dept. Air Force	129	5,919,000	157	5,694,000	97	3,031,000
Dept. Army	1021	54,675,000	1006	45,674,000	818	53,644,000
Dept. Navy	985	22,016,526	1015	22,615,016	840	20,935,600
GSA	146	6,563,057	196	4,469,239	119	11,618,374
Dept. of Interior						
Nat. Park Ser. (Eastern)	5	314,200	4	99,650	8	153,492
Bonneville Power Adm.	47	860,631	46	785,248	52	733,888
Bureau of Land Mgt.	5	120,000	2	22,000	1	16,000
Southwest Power Adm.	--	--	1	12,000	--	--
Bureau of Reclamation	16	1,157,000	18	1,503,000	15	1,230,000
Off. Saline Water	13	358,192	8	159,791	5	67,290
Panama Canal Co.	2	77,700	0	0	1	145,600
State Department						
US AID	48	9,622,000	42	6,312,000	40	7,732,000
Dept. Transportation						
Fed. Highway Adm.	1	2,092	2	15,829	1	2,385,580
Fed. Aviation Adm.	8	168,900	8	955,600	10	4,197,100
U.S. Coast Guard	23	1,042,000	18	975,000	10	169,000
Smithsonian Inst.	6	101,530	12	199,218	13	183,856
Veterans Adm.	7	2,904,300	7	1,193,800	58	567,900
National Aeronautics & Space Adm.	104	2,513,000	90	1,343,000	149	4,294,000
	3847	151,698,528	3804	132,084,884	3398	141,881,280

(Federal Agency) _____

(Date) _____

Major Agency Subdivision	July 1, 1967-June 30, 1968		July 1, 1968-June 30, 1969		July 1, 1969-June 30, 1970	
	Number of Recipients	Funds Conveyed	Number of Recipients	Funds Conveyed	Number of Recipients	Funds Conveyed
Agriculture Department						
	18	618,300	13	268,500	10	223,400
	791	28,700,000	678	28,935,095	759	45,018,605
	1297	44,592,000	1286	40,032,000	732	18,432,000
Dept. Health-Ed. & Welfare	1020	85,220,000	975	89,450,000	1275	90,215,000
Dept. Transportation						
Fed. Highway Adm.	2	65,000	1	7,000	1	288,000
National Aeronautics & Space Administration						
TOTAL	3128	159,195,300	2953	158,692,595	2777	154,177,005

CONTEMPORARY PUBLIC COMPETITIONS RESEARCHED TO DATE BY
FEDERAL ARCHITECTURE PROJECT

Competition	Person Contacted	Date
Copley Square	Charles Hilgenhurst	1960
* Pan American Health Organization	Leon Chatelain	1961
Eastern Psychiatric Institute	Gary Mote	1961
Chapel, MacNeil Penitentiary	Gary Mote	1962
* Boston City Hall	Lawrence B. Anderson	1962
Kennedy Plaza Fountain	Norman A. Rice	1964
National School Fallout Shelter Design	Stanley McGaughan	1964
Rockland Foundation	Danforth Toan	1965
Central Park Stables	Arthur Rosenblatt & Fred Bentel	1966
NASA Visitors' Center	Angelo Picillo	1966
* Birmingham-Jefferson Civic Center	William A. Briggs	1967
Osaka Pavilion	Jack Masey	1967
* Redesign of the Mall (Washington, D.C.)	David Childs	1971
Rainbow Plaza	Charles Hilgenhurst	1972
* Apartment Complex for the Aging (Utica)	H. Dickson McKenna	1972
* New Haven Arts Center	Bill Donahue	1973
VOLAR Barracks	James Allred	1972-73
New-Tran Competition	Tom Lebovik	1973

*Competition programs on file.

AVERAGE PROFIT/LOSS RATES

FEDERAL GOVERNMENT vs. NON-FEDERAL

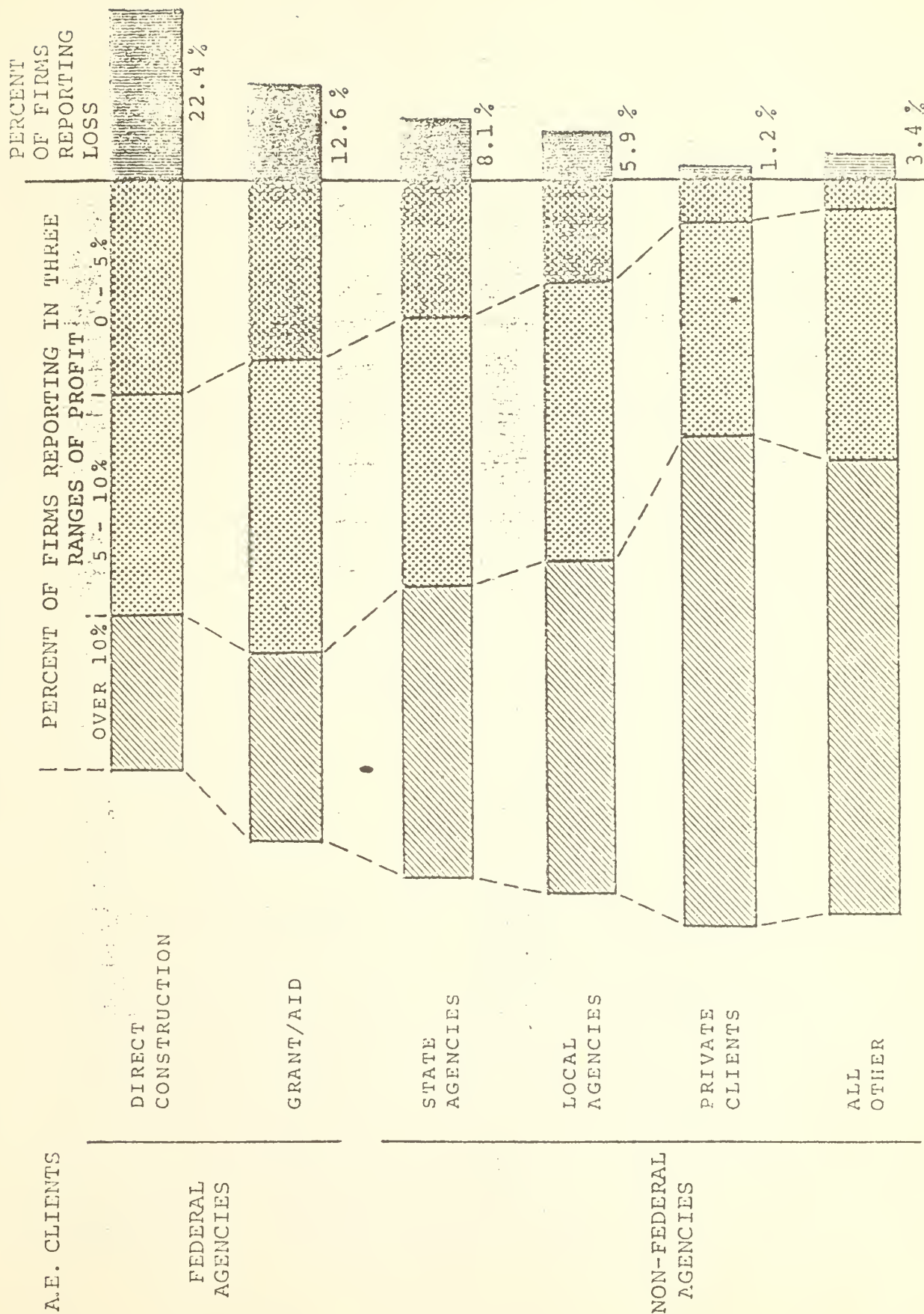


FIGURE IV
SOURCE: Report of Study Group 13-B, Commission on Government Procurement

SUMMARY OF 102 STATEMENTS FILED WITH THE CEQ BEGINNING 1970 THROUGH 11/30/73 (BY AGENCY)
(SOURCE: 102 MONITOR, Volume 3, No. 11, December 1973)

APPENDIX 1
PAGE 15

Agency	Draft 102's for actions on which no final 102's have yet been received	Final 102's on legislation and actions	Total actions on which draft or final statements have been received
Agriculture, Department of	145	268	413
Appalachian Regional Commission	1	0	1
Architect of the Capitol	1	0	1
Atomic Energy Commission	37	110	147
Commerce, Department of	10	25	35
Defense, Department of	5	6	11
Air Force	7	10	17
Army	1	15	16
Army Corps of Engineers	345	529	874
Navy	18	13	31
Delaware River Easin Commission	3	4	7
Energy Policy Office	0	1	1
Environmental Protection Agency	21	34	55
Federal Maritime Commission	1	0	1
Federal Power Commission	80	19	99
General Services Administration	21	45	66
HEW, Department of	5	9	14
HUD, Department of	11	63	74
Interior, Department of	129	138	267
International Boundary and Water Commission--U.S. and Mexico	0	7	7
Interstate Commerce Commission	3	1	4
Justice, Department of	3	1	4
Labor, Department of	1	1	2
National Aeronautics and Space Adm.	10	18	28
National Capital Planning Comm.	1	8	9
National Science Foundation	1	4	5
New England River Basins Commissions	1	0	1
Office of Science and Technology	0	1	1
Pacific Northwest River Basins Comm.	3	0	3
Souris-Red-Rainy River Basins Comm.	1	0	1
State Department	0	4	4
Tennessee Valley Authority	5	15	20
Transportation, Department of	931	1515	2446
Treasury, Department of	3	6	9
Upper Mississippi River Basin Comm.	1	0	1
U.S. Postal Service	1	0	1
U.S. Water Resources Council	4	5	9
Veterans Administration	1	4	5
	1807	2880	4687

APPENDIX B

The National Environmental Policy Act of 1969, Public Law 91-190 January 1, 1970 (42 U.S.C. 4321-4347)

An Act to establish a national policy for the environment, to provide for the establishment of a Council on Environmental Quality, and for other purposes.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That this Act may be cited as the "National Environmental Policy Act of 1969."

Purpose

Sec. 2. The purposes of this Act are: To declare a national policy which will encourage productive and enjoyable harmony between man and his environment; to promote efforts which will prevent or eliminate damage to the environment and biosphere and stimulate the health and welfare of man; to enrich the understanding of the ecological systems and natural resources important to the Nation; and to establish a Council on Environmental Quality.

Title I

Declaration of National Environmental Policy

Sec. 101. (a) The Congress, recognizing the profound impact of man's activity on the interrelations of all components of the natural environment, particularly the profound influences of population growth, high-density urbanization, industrial expansion, resource exploitation, and new and expanding

technological advances and recognizing further the critical importance of restoring and maintaining environmental quality to the overall welfare and development of man, declares that it is the continuing policy of the Federal Government, in cooperation with State and local governments, and other concerned public and private organizations, to use all practicable means and measures, including financial and technical assistance, in a manner calculated to foster and promote the general welfare, to create and maintain conditions under which man and nature can exist in productive harmony, and fulfill the social, economic, and other requirements of present and future generations of Americans.

(b) In order to carry out the policy set forth in this Act, it is the continuing responsibility of the Federal Government to use all practicable means, consistent with other essential considerations of national policy, to improve and coordinate Federal plans, functions, programs, and resources to the end that the Nation may—

(1) Fulfill the responsibilities of each generation as trustee of the environment for succeeding generations;

(2) Assure for all Americans safe, healthful, productive, and esthetically and culturally pleasing surroundings;

(3) Attain the widest range of beneficial uses of the environment without degradation, risk to health or safety, or other undesirable and unintended consequences;

(4) Preserve important historic, cultural, and natural aspects of our national heritage, and maintain, wherever possible, an environment which supports diversity, and variety of individual choice;

(5) Achieve a balance between population and resource use which will permit high standards of living and a wide sharing of life's amenities; and

(6) Enhance the quality of renewable resources and approach the maximum attainable recycling of depletable resources.

(c) The Congress recognizes that each person should enjoy a healthful environment and that each person has a responsibility to contribute to the preservation and enhancement of the environment.

Sec. 102. The Congress authorizes and directs that, to the fullest extent possible: (1) the policies, regulations, and public laws of the United States shall be interpreted and administered in accordance with the policies set forth in this Act, and (2) all agencies of the Federal Government shall—

(A) Utilize a systematic, interdisciplinary approach which will insure the integrated use of the natural and social sciences and the environmental design arts in planning and in decisionmaking which may have an impact on man's environment;

(B) Identify and develop methods and procedures, in consultation with the Council on Environmental Quality established by title II of this Act, which will insure that presently unquantified environmental amenities and values may be given appropriate consideration in decision-making along with economic and technical considerations;

(C) Include in every recommendation or report on proposals for legislation and other major Federal actions significantly affecting the quality of the human environment, a detailed statement by the responsible official on—

(i) The environmental impact of the proposed action;

(ii) Any adverse environmental effects which cannot be avoided should the proposal be implemented;

(iii) Alternatives to the proposed action;

(iv) The relationship between local short-term uses of man's environment and the maintenance and enhancement of long-term productivity; and

(v) Any irreversible and irretrievable commitments of resources

which would be involved in the proposed action should it be implemented.

Prior to making any detailed statement, the responsible Federal official shall consult with and obtain the comments of any Federal agency which has jurisdiction by law or special expertise with respect to any environmental impact involved. Copies of such statement and the comments and views of the appropriate Federal, State, and local agencies, which are authorized to develop and enforce environmental standards, shall be made available to the President, the Council on Environmental Quality and to the public as provided by section 552 of title 5, United States Code, and shall accompany the proposal through the existing agency review processes;

(D) Study, develop, and describe appropriate alternatives to recommended courses of action in any proposal which involves unresolved conflicts concerning alternative uses of available resources;

(E) Recognize the worldwide and long-range character of environmental problems and, where consistent with the foreign policy of the United States, lend appropriate support to initiatives, resolutions, and programs designed to maximize international cooperation in anticipating and preventing a decline in the quality of mankind's world environment;

(F) Make available to States, counties, municipalities, institutions, and individuals, advice and information useful in restoring, maintaining, and enhancing the quality of the environment;

(G) Initiate and utilize ecological information in the planning and development of resource-oriented projects; and

(H) Assist the Council on Environmental Quality established by title II of this Act.

Sec. 103. All agencies of the Federal Government shall review their present statutory authority, administrative regulations, and current policies and procedures for the purpose of determining whether there are any deficiencies or inconsistencies therein which prohibit full compliance with the purposes and provisions of this Act and shall propose to the President not later than July 1, 1971, such measures as may be necessary to bring their authority and policies into conformity with the intent, purposes, and procedures set forth in this Act.

Sec. 104. Nothing in section 102 or 103 shall in any way affect the specific statutory obligations of any Federal agency (1) to comply with criteria or standards of environmental quality, (2) to coordinate or consult with any other Federal or State agency, or (3) to act, or refrain from acting contingent upon the recommendations or certification of any other Federal or State agency.

Sec. 105. The policies and goals set forth in this Act are supplementary to those set forth in existing authorizations of Federal agencies.

Title II

Council on Environmental Quality

Sec. 201. The President shall transmit to the Congress annually beginning July 1, 1970, an Environmental Quality Report (hereinafter referred to as the "report") which shall set forth (1) the status and condition of the major natural, manmade, or altered environmental classes of the Nation, including, but not limited to, the air, the aquatic, including marine, estuarine, and fresh water, and the terrestrial environment, including, but not limited to, the forest, dryland, wetland, range, urban, suburban and rural environment; (2) current and foreseeable trends in the quality, management and utilization of such environments and the effects of those trends on the social, economic, and other requirements of the Nation; (3) the adequacy of available natural resources for fulfilling human and economic requirements of the Nation in the

light of expected population pressures; (4) a review of the programs and activities (including regulatory activities) of the Federal Government, the State and local governments, and nongovernmental entities, in accordance with particular reference to their effect on the environment and the ways in which development and utilization of natural resources; and (5) a plan for remedying the deficiencies of existing programs and activities, together with recommendations for legislation.

Sec. 202. There is created in the Executive Office of the President a Council on Environmental Quality (hereinafter referred to as the "Council"). The Council shall be composed of three members who shall be appointed by the President to serve at his pleasure, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. The President shall designate one of the members of the Council to serve as Chairman. Each member shall be a person who, as a result of his training, experience, and attainments, is exceptionally well qualified to analyze and interpret environmental trends and information of all kinds; to appraise programs and activities of the Federal Government in the light of the policy set forth in title I of this Act; to be conscious of and responsive to the scientific, economic, social, esthetic, and cultural needs and interests of the Nation; and to formulate and recommend national policies to promote the improvement of the quality of the environment.

Sec. 203. The Council may employ such officers and employees as may be necessary to carry out its functions under this Act. In addition, the Council may employ and fix the compensation of such experts and consultants as may be necessary for the carrying out of its functions under this Act, in accordance with section 3109 of title 5, United States Code (but without regard to the last sentence thereof).

Sec. 204. It shall be the duty and function of the Council—

(1) To assist and advise the President in the preparation of the Environmental Quality Report required by section 201;

(2) To gather timely and authoritative information concerning the conditions and trends in the quality of the environment both current and prospective, to analyze and interpret such information for the purpose of determining whether such conditions and trends are interfering, or are likely to interfere, with the achievement of the policy set forth in title I of this Act, and to compile and submit to the President studies relating to such conditions and trends;

(3) To review and appraise the various programs and activities of the Federal Government in the light of the policy set forth in title I of this Act for the purpose of determining the extent to which such programs and activities are contributing to the achievement of such policy, and to make recommendations to the President with respect thereto;

(4) To develop and recommend to the President national policies to foster and promote the improvement of environmental quality, to meet the conservation, social, economic, health, and other requirements and goals of the Nation;

(5) To conduct investigations, studies, surveys, research, and analyses relating to ecological systems and environmental quality;

(6) To document and define changes in the natural environment, including the plant and animal systems, and to accumulate necessary data and other information for a continuing analysis of these changes or trends and an interpretation of their underlying causes;

(7) To report at least once each year to the President on the state and condition of the environment; and

(8) To make and furnish such studies, reports thereon, and recommendations with respect to matters of policy and legislation as the President may request.

Sec. 205. In exercising its powers, functions, and duties under this Act, the Council shall—

(1) Consult with the Citizens' Advisory Committee on Environmental Quality established by Executive Order No. 11472, dated May 29, 1969, and with such representatives of science, industry, agriculture, labor, conservation, organizations, State and local governments and other groups, as it deems advisable; and

(2) Utilize, to the fullest extent possible, the services, facilities and information (including statistical information) of public and private agencies and organizations, and individuals, in order that duplication of effort and expense may be avoided, thus assuring that the Council's activities will not unnecessarily overlap or conflict with similar activities authorized by law and performed by established agencies.

Sec. 206. Members of the Council shall serve full time and the Chairman of the Council shall be compensated at the rate provided for Level II of the Executive Schedule Pay Rates (5 U.S.C. 5313). The other members of the Council shall be compensated at the rate provided for Level IV of the Executive Schedule Pay Rates (5 U.S.C. 5315).

Sec. 207. There are authorized to be appropriated to carry out the provisions of this Act not to exceed \$300,000 for fiscal year 1970, \$700,000 for fiscal year 1971, and \$1 million for each fiscal year thereafter.

Approved January 1, 1970.

APPENDIX C

The Environmental Quality Improvement Act of 1970, Public Law 91-224, April 3, 1970 (42 U.S.C. 4371-4374)

Title ii—Environmental Quality (of the Water Quality Improvement Act of 1970)

Short Title

Sec. 201. This title may be cited as the "Environmental Quality Improvement Act of 1970."

Findings, Declarations, and Purposes

Sec. 202. (a) The Congress finds—

- (1) That man has caused changes in the environment;
- (2) That many of these changes may affect the relationship between man and his environment; and
- (3) That population increases and urban concentration contribute directly to pollution and the degradation of our environment.

(b) (1) The Congress declares that there is a national policy for the environment which provides for the enhancement of environmental quality. This policy is evidenced by statutes heretofore enacted relating to the prevention, abatement, and control of environmental pollution, water and land resources, transportation, and economic and regional development.

(2) The primary responsibility for implementing this policy rests with State and local governments.

(3) The Federal Government encourages and supports implementation of this policy through appropriate regional organizations established under existing law.

(c) The purposes of this title are—

- (1) To assure that each Federal department and agency conducting or supporting public works activities which affect the environment shall implement the policies established under existing law; and
- (2) To authorize an Office of Environmental Quality, which, notwithstanding any other provision of law, shall provide the professional and administrative staff for the Council on Environmental Quality established by Public Law 91-190.

Office of Environmental Quality

Sec. 203. (a) There is established in the Executive Office of the President an office to be known as the Office of Environmental Quality (hereafter in this title referred to as the "Office"). The Chairman of the Council on Environmental Quality established by Public Law 91-190 shall be the Director of the Office. There shall be in the Office a Deputy Director who shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

(b) The compensation of the Deputy Director shall be fixed by the President at a rate not in excess of the annual rate of compensation payable to the Deputy Director of the Bureau of the Budget.

(c) The Director is authorized to employ such officers and employees (including experts and consultants) as may be necessary to enable the Office to carry out its functions under this title and Public Law 91-190, except that he may employ no more than 10 specialists and other experts without regard to the provisions of title 5, United States Code, governing appointments in the competitive service, and pay such specialists and experts without regard to the provisions of chapter 51 and subchapter 111 of chapter 53 of such title relating to classification and General Schedule pay rates, but no such specialist or expert shall be paid at a rate in excess of the maximum rate for GS-18 of the General Schedule under section 5330 of title 5.

(d) In carrying out his functions the Director shall assist and advise the President on policies and programs of the Federal Government affecting environmental quality by—

- (1) Providing the professional and administrative staff and support for the Council on Environmental Quality established by Public Law 91-190;
- (2) Assisting the Federal agencies and departments in appraising the effectiveness of existing and proposed facilities, programs, policies, and activities of the Federal Government, and those specific major projects designated by the President which do not require individual project authorization by Congress, which affect environmental quality;
- (3) Reviewing the adequacy of existing systems for monitoring and predicting environmental changes in order to achieve effective coverage and efficient use of research facilities and other resources;
- (4) Promoting the advancement of scientific knowledge of the effects of actions and technology on the environment and encourage the development of the means to prevent or reduce adverse effects that endanger the health and well-being of man;

(5) Assisting in coordinating among the Federal departments and agencies those programs and activities which affect, protect, and improve environmental quality;

(6) Assisting the Federal departments and agencies in the development and interrelationship of environmental quality criteria and standards established through the Federal Government;

(7) Collecting, collating, analyzing, and interpreting data and information on environmental quality, ecological research, and evaluation.

(e) The Director is authorized to contract with public or private agencies, institutions, and organizations and with individuals without regard to sec-

tions 3618 and 3709 of the Revised Statutes (31 U.S.C. 529; 41 U.S.C. 5) in carrying out his functions.

Report

Sec. 204. Each Environmental Quality Report required by Public Law 91-190 shall, upon transmittal to Congress, be referred to each standing committee having jurisdiction over any part of the subject matter of the Report.

Authorization

Sec. 205. There are hereby authorized to be appropriated not to exceed \$500,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1970, not to exceed \$750,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1971, not to exceed \$1,250,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1972, and not to exceed \$1,500,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1973. These authorizations are in addition to those contained in Public Law 91-190.

Approved April 3, 1970.

THE WHITE HOUSE

WASHINGTON

May 16, 1972

One year ago I asked the heads of 63 Federal agencies to determine ways by which their agencies could more vigorously assist the arts and, in turn, how the arts might be used to enhance their programs. The response to that request has been gratifying, calling fresh attention to the importance of the arts in the daily operations of Government and leading to the development of several recommendations by the National Endowment for the Arts.

Today, based upon this first set of recommendations by the Endowment, I am pleased to announce that we shall move forward on three fronts:

-- First, I am asking the Federal Council on the Arts and Humanities to sponsor an annual Design Assembly for Federal administrators and artists.

-- Second, I am asking the National Endowment for the Arts to appoint a special ad hoc task force committee to review and expand the publication, Guiding Principles for Federal Architecture; this document was first printed in 1962 and set forth broad aesthetic recommendations of considerable value. I am also asking the National Endowment to recommend a program for including art works in new Federal buildings.

-- Third, I am taking a series of actions to improve Federal graphics and publications. The National Endowment will now be responsible for coordinating the efforts of the executive agencies to upgrade their graphics. I am also requesting Federal agency heads to make a comprehensive review of their own graphics and production, and I am asking the Civil Service Commission to review existing procedures for employing artists, architects and designers for Federal service. The Commission is also to evaluate the need for expert rating panels to review credentials and portfolios of applicants for such jobs, as is done in other professional areas.

-2-

The people of this country are increasingly concerned -- and properly so -- with the physical appearance of their communities. There should be no doubt that the Federal Government has an appropriate and critical role to play in encouraging better design, and I am hopeful that the actions announced today will enable the Government to reflect new standards of excellence in all of its design endeavors.

A handwritten signature in dark ink, reading "Richard Nixon". The signature is written in a cursive, flowing style with a large, prominent "R" and "N".

GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR FEDERAL ARCHITECTURE STUDY

NATIONAL ENDOWMENT FOR THE ARTS

TASK FORCE MEMBERS

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FLORENCE KNOLL BASSETT
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LAWRENCE HALPRIN
JEROME W. LINDSEY, JR.
ELIOT NOYES
IEOH MING PEI

RICHARD RAVITCH
CHLOETHIEL WOODARD SMITH
FRANKLIN A. THOMAS
HONORABLE FRANK THOMPSON, JR.
WALTER F. WAGNER, JR.
HARRY M. WEESE

SPECIAL ADVISORS TO THE FEDERAL ARCHITECTURE TASK FORCE

CHARLES EAMES, Member, National Council on the Arts
O'NEIL FORD, Member, National Council on the Arts

LIST OF AGENCY DESIGNEES

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DR. ERNEST A. CONNALLY, NPS
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NATIONAL ENDOWMENT STAFF

NANCY HANKS, Chairman, Federal Architecture Task Force
BILL N. LACY, Executive Director, Federal Architecture Study
LOIS A. CRAIG, Staff Director, Federal Architecture Study

RESEARCH STAFF

GORDON BINDER
JOSEPH FLORES
HOPE GRAY

ELISABETH HIRSH
JAMES READLE

SUPPORTING ENDOWMENT STAFF

BIRCH COFFEY
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